

# AVIATION

*The Oldest American Aeronautical Magazine*

JANUARY 19, 1929

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A C.C.A. Fairchild Cabin Monoplane above the clouds en route to Montreal

VOLUME  
XXVI

NUMBER  
3

## *Special Features*

Aeronautical Engineering Supplement  
Short Distance Racing and Handicapping  
The Refueling Flight of the "Question Mark"

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## Future Production

ONE of the fundamental problems which faces the board of directors and stockholders of every aircraft concern is the number of different types which they shall produce. On the one hand, it would seem as if the best policy was to bring out several different types, and, if possible, a complete line. Not only does this give a wider field for manufacturing, and thereby increases the possibilities of large volume, but, more important still, it gives an opportunity of supplying distributors and dealers with the various types which their customers may demand.

During 1928 there was a decided tendency to increase the number of types turned out by aircraft manufacturers, or to achieve the same end by combinations of manufacturers producing different types. Especially during this formative period, when the popular type cannot be predicted with too great accuracy, it may be well to have several different types under way.

In making these decisions, however, the directors should not overlook the importance of concentration. Few people can be equally good at a variety of things. Most of them, if they are to be successful, must concentrate on one particular specialty. Too much time and effort cannot be spent on the design and construction of a plane. A plane may be completely ready the same from year to year, but actually it may be either vastly improved or may be set to naught. The standard, the air and speeded by the Ford, designed in 1917, was not improved until 1928. Through all this period minor changes of improvements were made in details were shown up. As a result these old main planes held their own for a long time against planes designed ten years later, and it was with difficulty that many pilots were permitted to leave their favor upon the newer designs.

Concentration by an organization on one particular type may of necessity achieve better results than if the efforts of the same organization are spread over many products. From the manufacturing point of view, there is nothing that saves the cost more than too much diversification and change. From the engineering point of view, there is no doubt that a detailed study of one particular type will lead to perfection that cannot be achieved if the staff is constantly bringing out new models. New models educate the engineer, but do not necessarily mean the production of the best plane. Even from the sales point of view, different methods and different results are required to sell planes of different types. For example the selling of a few expensive transport planes requires a different method than the selling of thousands of two-seater planes. Distributors and dealers can handle the products of different manufacturers provided that they do not compete and these services to be no absolute necessity of their representing only one manufacturer.

In the automobile field there has been a tendency in

the past few years for companies to specialize in one particular branch of the field rather than to put out several radically different types and sizes. As production goes up in the airplane field it is perfectly possible that the present tendency towards several different types may be reversed. Large production of a single type in one plant is more economical than the same production of a variety of types. The company that establishes itself as the leader in a particular type, and as the three major open cockpit planes is in an enviable position and may be as successful as a company which produces several models but is not the leader in any of them.

## Service Establishments

WITH aircraft sales becoming more keenly made new ones, and the business of service becoming a major factor in the sale of aircraft, there is now open a new field within a field which, if entered with a certain amount of business caution and a certain amount of knowledge pertaining to procedure of operation, should prove highly profitable to all parties concerned.

It stands to reason that the manufacturer can only act in an advisory, or perhaps a supervising capacity, in the matter of service. It is for him to see that his distributors and dealers perform the actual servicing duties. But, if such an arrangement is found to be impractical for special reasons or lack of servicing knowledge, he must look elsewhere for the right person and establish a service organization that is apart from his regular sales organization.

A combination sales and service organization is of course the ideal situation, but in view of the fact that to preserve many distributors and dealers most of necessity represent two or three non-competitive manufacturers, it follows that the servicing function must be handled by a weaker member. Assuming that servicing must be handled outside of the sales organization because of the fact that more than one manufacturer must be represented in order to bring about a profit, it would seem altogether advisable for groups of well-financed individuals (preferably those experienced in servicing work) to consider seriously active participation in this new field.

It is quite possible that state-wide representations of several non-competitive manufacturers could be obtained. Then, a base of operations could be established at the largest airport in the territory. Such a base would handle local work and also act as a supply depot for the smaller shops scattered throughout the territory. The small shops could be independently owned for that matter and, acting as representatives of the main service establishment, the initial capital required for such a venture is of course no small item, but the cooperation of the various manufacturers and the even closer cooperation of the various distributors and dealers in the territory, the amount of business obtainable should fully compensate for the original investment.

# The Refueling Flight of the "Question Mark"

By CHARLES F. McREYNOLDS

ALTHOUGH it has broken every record for sustaining human beings above the surface of the earth, either in balloons, dirigibles, or heavier-than-air craft, the Army's Atlantic C-2A monoplane "Question Mark" is in no sense of the word a "naïve" plane. It is a true flying laboratory, planned to test the durability of engines in continued operation while in the air, to test the plane, its equipment, and its crew for the effect of long continued flight, but most particularly planned to test the practicability of regular refueling in flight while in full flight and with present equipment. Following the record attempt, Maj. Carl Spitz, commanding officer of the endurance flight, stated that the chief thing they had accomplished was to rub out so many hazy and under so many varying conditions that no one could doubt the complete success of refueling methods which have been developed.

It is interesting to know that 27 contacts were made during the 150 hr. flight between the "Question Mark" and her main plane. The 27 contacts entailed a total of approximately four hours of contact flying. During these four hours of contact more than 5,000 gal. of gasoline, 250 gal. of oil and approximately 2,000 lb. of food and supplies were transferred to the "Question Mark." This totals about 42,000 lb. of weight landed or shoveled 21 tons of material that was placed on board the tri-engine Biplane in flight. Numerous radio contacts were made, some of them despite low visibility and bad air currents; and on one occasion a severe radio contact was made when all lights on the "Question Mark" were out due to low batteries, 180 gal. of gasoline being placed aboard. Numerous fuel tanks were transferred to the crew, while hot water and extra tea were given gratis.

Of six engines were placed on board while still cold. Teflon, grease, lubricants, a collapsible bath tub, a supply of food, seven, wooden underwear, a rubber suit for Major Spitz, a window for the cabin, to replace one that had blown away, and many other items of miscellaneous nature were delivered to the crew. It is quite apparent that refuel and supply methods are now flexible enough to keep a plane up indefinitely if engines could be kept burning over.

## Only Two Official Records Credited

The only official records to be credited to the plane are two new refueling records, one the new American record for having surpassed the 30 hr., 15 min and 40 sec. flight of Lewis Lawell Smith and Paul Schuch over San Diego, Calif., in an Army De Havilland biplane in 1923, and the other a new world's record for endurance by means of refueling because of exceeding the 60 hr. 7 min. flight of Adjutant Louis Gray and Sergeant Victor Grinten, made in Belgium during 1918. The new Americans and world refueling endurance record now stands at 150 hr. 40 min. 34 sec., the start having been made at 7:20:46 A. M. Jan. 1, 1929, and the landing at 2:49:04 P. M. Jan. 7, 1929. Such start and finish were on the runways of the Los Angeles Metropolitan Airport, Van Nuys, Calif., under the supervision of N. A. A. officers headed by Dudley H. Seale, and with Joe Nakano as timer.

Besides these two official records the "Question Mark" reflexively travelled approximately 30,000 mi. to break the former record of 8,617 mi. established by Capt. Arturo Ferraris and Major Carlo del Prete when they flew a Savoia monoplane from Rome to Port Natal, Brazil, in

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1928, and also to surpass the 6,000 mi. flight of the Graf Zeppelin during its recent voyage to America, although the official distance over L. A.-San Diego course was only 11 hrs. at 2,826 mi.

In addition to breaking all distance records the "Question Mark" surpassed the following records for endurance, but since they are in a different class the contest claim any of them. American Endurance without refueling, Brock and Saline, 39 hr., 1928, World's heavier than air, Johnson, Rogers and Whittier, Germany, 65 hr. 25 min., Germany; Spherical balloon endurance, Kaaden of Germany, 87 hr. Graf Zeppelin, 111½ hr. on 1928 flight to America; French dirigible "Dernade," 118 hr. 42 min.

These technically needed will at once require just what

it was that finally caused the plane to descend. Undoubtedly the fact that valve mechanisms in the spark plugs functioned for more than 150 hr. without in question or adjustment is the answer. The rocker arms on the left engine finally gave way, apparently after failure of the rocker arm lubrication system, causing that engine to cut out entirely. The other two engines were opened for two days to keep the engine, the one while Sgt. Hoyt remained the trouble. Although Sergeant Hoyt was able to check out the engine damage, the trouble and start work at the valve mechanism, the remaining two engines did not prove ready to the added stress and the plane was forced to the ground before the trouble could be remedied.

In the opinion of Major Spitz, it will not be feasible to attempt the regular repair of engines in actual use; they are placed completely aside an engine room where the mechanic can do any work on any part.

Although not willing to make any definite promises for the future, Major Spitz pointed out that from a military standpoint the successful demonstration of refueling means that landing places can now take off with heavy loads of bombs and single gasoline, refuel over the land with a greater load of fuel than they could have lifted from the ground and continue to a more distant objective than would otherwise have been possible. Also it is apparent that a large bomber returning against wireless and landing itself low on fuel could make for a refuel plane, refuelers in addition, and then continue safely to the long base instead of being forced down behind the enemy lines. At this important situation planes would be kept which make it possible by refueling, thus getting the best commander an unobstructed command of the scene of action.

## An Asset to Cross-Country Distance Flying

An application of refueling which members of the "Question Mark" crew expect to use soon is as value for long distance non-stop flying. By taking off light and then loading in mid-air, a pilot can carry a maximum greater load and thereby reach a more distant point safely.

Members of the Army endurance crew were all of the opinion that in the near future a system of serial service stations will be inaugurated throughout the country, over large air terminals having a refuel plane to serve long passenger lines. That if a passenger plane finds bad

weather ahead it will detour over the nearest cross-refueling station take on fuel without stopping and continue by a longer route to the original terminal. A very practical point here is that by refueling often, a transport plane may carry less fuel and more cargo load. By refueling intermediate landing the wear and tear on the plane is greatly lessened and the element of danger which always enters into a landing is reduced to proportion at the intermediate stations are eliminated.

These aerial refueling flights are being planned by the Army and Navy. It is generally expected that transport was demonstrated by two refuelings of the "Question Mark" during her flight to the west coast. Over Dallas, Texas, an aerial refueling was accomplished without delaying the plane more than seven minutes, while some were used in climbing the field and contacting the plane.

Following the refueling at Dallas, Texas, the "Question Mark" landed for refueling by a good ground crew which was prepared to refuel quickly, yet the operation consumed 40 min., counting the time lost in landing and taking off. This is a very good time, as a plane half an hour, in a few days, on just one operation.

Having so definitely proved the advantages of aerial refueling, even with present crude equipment, Major Spitz expects the time in the near future when transporters will have large transport planes especially for refueling and repair of engines in mid-air. These planes will probably be of 300 or 350 ft. wing spread, 15 ft. fuselage, with engines, mainly located and accessible to mechanics, propellers being gear driven. By using a somewhat longer base any possibility of contact between the two planes in formation could be eliminated, and by periodically refueling the engine and fuel tank, the power the big plane could be kept in full flight across the country. Such large planes would probably be accommodated only at special terminals in each state and would therefore eliminate entirely any intermediate stops.

Having noted the success of the "Question Mark" flight and the commercial developments which are indicated, it is interesting to study the equipment used on the recent endurance record.

The "Question Mark" is a standard Army Atlantic C-2A monoplane, known conventionally as the Fisher F-7. It is powered by three Pratt & Whitney J-5 engines, each developing a maximum of 225 hp. and rated at 200 hp. The Atlantic C-2A is a high wing monoplane, 48 ft. 2 in. in overall length and 36 ft. 6 in. in height. It weighs 12,175 lb. in empty weight, 5,700 lb. in takeoff weight, 10,000 lb. in landing weight, 10,000 lb. in empty weight, and the wing is of full cantilever construction plywood covered.

The Wright J-5 engines are nine cylinder, air cooled models, weighing 500 lb. each and developing 200 hp. at 1,800 r.p.m. at 2,225 ft. at 2,000 r.p.m., with a piston displacement of 788 cu. in.

The radial engines, which there were two, were Douglas C-1C Army transports powered with the Liberty 12 water cooled engine developing 420 hp. at 1,700 r.p.m. The Douglas is a cubic engine with a 36 in. x 8 in. bore, overall height of 14 in. and overall length of 25 in. It is in the plane weighs 2,800 lb. empty and has a maximum speed of 115 m.p.h. while the Douglas C-1C cruises at



Achian picture of the Army's Atlantic C-2A Fokker monoplane "Question Mark" in the air above Los Angeles

300 m.p.h. and has a high speed of 121 m.p.h. Two Boeing PW-50 diesel planes were also used for message carrying, using converted tin "flying blackboards" by painting each side black and writing the message on the side in chalk.

#### Refueling Planes Fitted With Special Tanks

The Douglas refuel planes were especially fitted with three large cabin tanks for carrying a supply of gasoline. Each one had room for several five-gallon cans of lubricating oil and many pockets of food or supplies. Aside from the fuel tanks and a 20 ft. hose which was dropped through the trap door in the cabin floor, there was little special equipment on these planes. A block and tackle was rigged for lowering the hose and also for hoisting the hose up. The hose carried no valve on the lower end, there being a three-way tapping system in the refuel plane's cabin which permitted the operator to run gasoline from either or all of the three tanks as soon as the hose had been installed in the funnel on the "Question Mark" by Major Spatz. An additional item was a copper wire running down the refuel hose and grounded on the "Question Mark" each time by Major Spatz in order to prevent static electricity from the hose dragging the gasoline.

Because it was necessary for the "Question Mark" crew to live on board in a protracted period and have the engines going constantly in addition to the work of refueling, there was considerable extra equipment installed on this craft. This equipment both loaded the plane down and added to its fuel resistance materially so that it was under a handicap from the angle throughout the entire flight.

To provide comfort for the crew there were three folding Army bunk beds into the cabin behind the main engine tanks, two lower and an upper. There was also a folding table and sufficient bedding materials to keep the engine crew busy during the time aloft. An electric stove had been placed in part of the original equipment but was left out in order to save space. In the forward part of the main cabin there were two large gasoline tanks carrying a total of 200 gal. of gasoline in addition to 280 gal. carried by the wing tanks. Gasoline reached these

tanks from the refuel hose through the large funnel at the rear trap door by means of light aluminum pipes. These pipes could be taken down and hung on wall racks between refuelings. While refueling, Major Spatz took position on a metal platform in the entry way at the rear of the main cabin, his head and shoulders projecting through a large opening in the top of the fuselage made by sliding a trapdoor aside. After the cabin tanks were filled the gasoline was pumped into the wing tanks by means of a large hand-operated wobble pump on the right forward side of the cabin. For this flight the Army used Richfield aviation gasoline exclusively, pumping all gasoline carried aloft from the Metropolitan airport into the refuel planes from a permanent Richfield aviation service station which has been erected at the runway intersection.

#### Oil Recycled in Five-Gallon Cans

Oil was passed to the "Question Mark" through the trapdoor in the cabin roof, being received in five-gallon cans and poured into a 60 gal. reserve tank in the main cabin. This triple drain hose was the only engine oil used, and it was pumped to the engine tanks by means of a large hand-operated wobble pump on the left forward side of the cabin.

Probably the most interesting part of the special equipment was that by which the pressure in each cabin tank in the engine and engine tanks was periodically drained and replaced by fresh oil, and the manner in which all tank areas and all three engines were kept lubricated from the main cabin.

Even the immense supply of lubricating oil, copper tubes led to the three engine tanks, permitting these tanks to be filled at will. Valves were also provided at each tank by which they could be drained of old oil. On the engine these valves were located below and to the rear of the axle and were operated by tangle rods connected to an indicating board within the cabin, one on the right side and one on the left, which told whether the valves were feeding oil to the tank, draining it out, or were in the closed position. Periodically the mechanic, Sergt. Ray Howe, would turn the oil drain valve from one side of the cabin, drain out the worn oil, close the oil drain valve, open the fuel valve and pump the engine tank full

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with the wobble pump, thus keeping fresh oil in all engine areas throughout the flight.

For draining the rocker arms a system of copper tube leads was installed, all of which terminated in a board in the forward part of the main cabin. There were three typed Atlanta connections on the board, one connection for the pipe hose leading to each engine. In order to gauge the valve mechanism of any particular engine, Sergeant Howe simply connected an ordinary Atlantic pressure gun to the proper terminal and shot Atlantic



The dashboard engine of the "Question Mark." Note the Washington-Metropolitan propeller, outboard exhaust engine. Alleviate pressure system tubing, and large lubricating oil lines from main cabin to nacelle.

gasoline through the pipe line to the rocker arm of the second engine. The pipe line to each engine was located between the upper two cylinders and had a valve from rocker arm to rocker arm which way around the engine tank the lines joined at the bottom.

In order that the engines would be reached while in flight, an extra door was provided on each side of the engine. From this door a walkway led out to each engine. The walk was of steel tube construction braced to the upper longons and to the axles in the forward end of the walk, and with hand rail running along the rear side. A step was built on the leading gear just above the tire in order that mechanics might reach the outside of the engine. Just before the "Question Mark" landed, Sergeant Howe got out on the left walkway, got around the axle to the outside step and steel walk on the left, and the axles to the outside step and steel walk on the right. A step was built on the leading gear just above the tire in order that mechanics might reach the outside of the engine. Just before the "Question Mark" landed, Sergeant Howe got out on the left walkway, got around the axle to the outside step and steel walk on the left, and the axles to the outside step and steel walk on the right. A step was built on the leading gear just above the tire in order that mechanics might reach the outside of the engine.

A large platform of steel tubing was suspended below the nose of the plane around the forward engine. This is reached by climbing up through the pilot's cockpit and down over the nose. This platform was not used during the flight but provided an excellent footing in case of emergency. The mechanic going out to the outboards is equipped with a safety belt which he can hook to the engine in such a way as to leave both hands free to work. The two side walk ways are covered with composition board while the forward platform is a single grid of steel tubing.

The crew on the "Question Mark" consisted of Maj.

Capt. Spatz, as command; Capt. Ira C. Baker, second in command and chief pilot; First Lieut. Harry A. Holwerth, pilot; Sgt. Ray Howe, mechanic.

Capt. Ross G. Hoyt served refuel plane No. One, and First Lieut. Odus Moore, piloted refuel plane No. Two. First Lieut. Andy C. Strickland, Second Lieut. Andrew F. Saker, Second Lieut. Irvin A. Woodruff, and Second Lieut. Joseph C. Hagopian, were all members of the refueling crew.

During the progress of the flight Major Spatz was in charge of operations on the "Question Mark," issued daily orders to the crew, and at all times made the decisions as to the time to be flown, and procedure followed in emergency. Such an emergency arose when the refuel crew of Southern California was located out by heavy fog on Thursday night, January 4, but Major Spatz ordered refuel plane No. Two to follow him to the Imperial Valley with a load of gasoline. Although the crew was very rough over the Imperial Valley, during the night flying period there was difficulty and at times discharges, the visibility was good and Major Spatz was able



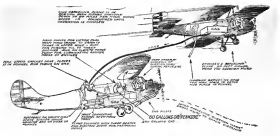
The "Question Mark" taking on fuel. Major Spatz is at the rear and Captain Baker at the controls.

to refuel them during the hours of darkness, before returning again to the Los Angeles Metropolitan Airport when conditions had improved on the coast.

An excellent idea of the duties assigned the "Question Mark" is given by the first order published aboard her by Major Spatz, and which reads as follows:

#### General Instructions:

- (1) Captain Baker will sit at the controls with Lieutenant Holwerth standing. Major Spatz and Lieut. Strickland will be at outboard rear end. Ray will be at the pump.
- (2) Only those for plotting and flight orders will be published at daylight tank due to leave the morning 24 hr., commencing at 4 A. M. on the day of use.
- (3) Pilot will normally fly over Los Angeles Metropolitan airport—Kendall Field and return, landing near at Metropolitan airport and making emergency at Burbank Field.
- (4) In case of abnormal visibility of another engine or motor trouble or unusual circumstances of any nature should arise, Major Spatz and Captain Baker will be worked separately.
- (5) In case of emergency requiring landing, Capt. Baker will take the controls.
- (6) Capt. Baker will be charged with spotting the barograph.
- (7) The flight officer (in duty) will be responsible for the position of the wing which is maintained in the proper level.
- (8) The pilot due to outboard for outboard the outboard (not just one tank to another).
- (9) The pilot (wing) will not be changed by pilot after being determined by Capt. Baker. Get position reporting a change in identity (wing) will be considered an emergency and approach (wing) will be completed with.



A cross section drawing shows how the refueling contacts were made during the flight of the "Question Mark."





of the arc being that adjusted, it is a simple mathematical problem to work out the estimated time taken by each machine to cover the lap, or if the race is not flown in more than one lap—the entire course.

It should perhaps be mentioned that the actual measurements of the course and distance are extremely difficult, and the results of one race can only be used as a basis for estimating speeds over a separate course on a relative basis. This is mostly due to the extreme difficulty of obtaining the exact length of any lap, or course, and a variation of 10 m.p.h. has often been found in the results obtained by the most accurate timing, due entirely to this cause.

From the time taken to fly the course (see column 2), the time taken from zero, or starting time (see column 3), it then remains, for instance, if the fastest machine, or "best man," takes three hours and the fastest, or "scratch man," takes one hour, the "best man" is placed at zero starting time, while the "scratch man" is placed at two hours behind zero hour.

The actual handicap allowances (see column 4), which are posted up for public information prior to race, are then obtained by the reverse process, i.e., that of subtracting the estimated time taken for the course by the scratch man from the times taken by the other competitors.

The resulting table then is as follows:

1. Name of competitor A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z or p.h.	2. Estimated time (h) (m) (s) course	3. Time from zero to start (h) (m) (s) time	4. H.C. or other allowances

The above is obviously a simple mathematical process, and it remains to discuss the actual method of which the estimated speeds are obtained.

There are two main headings under which this work falls.

1. That of estimating, as nearly as possible, the actual

speed obtained by the aircraft considered. This may be done (and this is the simplest method) by a knowledge of the actual performance at some previous occasion of the aircraft in question.

Here again it is necessary to bear in mind the fact that these factors have to be considered:

(a) The fact that the speeds quoted from previous flights can only be considered as relative to one another, due to the human element in course measurement.

(b) The fact that these speeds may have been obtained by pilots of varying racing capacity.

(c) The fact that the weather conditions on the various occasions considered, may not have been constant.

Of the above three conditions, the second possibly is the only one which requires explanation.

#### Speed Considerations Important

It will be readily realized that if one aircraft is continuously flown by a pilot of exceptionally good racing capacity, the times obtained will be better than those which would have been obtained by a racing pilot of normal capacity. Since the above method is only one of several which it is desired to give the prize to the best pilot, it is only right that all considerations bearing on the speed of the aircraft should be taken into account, the necessary corrections being made for piloting skill, which on former occasions had all to account.

It should be pointed out that when this method has been employed in air races in Great Britain, the official handicapper has always made a great deal of sitting, during all races, the number of seconds lost on turning points within sight of the audience at which he is stationed.

This method then leads to the prize being gained partly and solely by the piloting skill of the one in charge of the machine, and this method in the same way leads to the extremely close finishes which give the first element of sport that has characterized air racing in Great Britain.

2. Now it is obvious that it may be desirable to give a prize to aircraft designers who are capable of reducing the parasite resistance to the utmost minimum, or



Lined up for a hunt in a recent handicap race. The author's plane, second from right, won the race.

possibly to engine designers who are capable of obtaining the best power to weight ratio.

In this case, a formula is used for obtaining the speeds on which the handicap allowances of the race are based. Any suitable formula can be used for this purpose, according to the ideas of the promoters. One such formula, which has been used in England, has been based on the area and the weight of each competing plane. This has led to interesting results.

#### A Formula on Fresh Machines

It must be borne in mind, however, that this second method places a premium on fresh machines which are designed to defeat the formula. Moreover, since and sporting finishes cannot be hoped for, as it is a matter of confidence, of quality or design, if two machines happen to cross the finishing line together.

These two methods for obtaining the speed, which replaced in the first column of the table, are the main ways in which this work is carried out.

It is, of course, a fact that very often a new type of machine is entered. The application of the second method to such a type is a matter of mathematical simplicity while that of the former demands a knowledge of the theoretical method of estimating performance.

A factor which, however, is common to both methods is that of applying the cosine correction figure, and it may be of interest to know that while a high aeroplane

such as the "Blériot" or "Avron" is capable of a speed on a straight course in level flight of about 100 m.p.h., it is reduced to a figure of approximately 95 m.p.h. when flying on a triangular lap with a total length of five miles. A machine such as the Avro "Avenger," which approaches 300 m.p.h. in straight flight, is reduced on such a lap to a figure in the neighborhood of 170 m.p.h.

If it is desired, however, to hold races amongst aircraft which the prize are to be given for the best piloting, it is advisable to use the first method of obtaining the speeds on which the handicap allowance figures are based, while if it is desired to give prizes for aircraft design, or for engine building, the second method with an appropriate formula, is suitable.

Before the reduction of speed with regard to figures under column one, it is, of course, necessary to bear in mind the effect of passengers, not only as regards their weight, but also as regards the resistance of their heads and shoulders in enclosures with open cockpits, while the streamlining of seats and springs must also be taken into account.

For instance, the effect of the weight and resistance of one passenger in a two or three seater with open cockpits, and capable of some 150 m.p.h., is something in the order of 3/5 m.p.h., while lower down, the speed made in the two seater light plane class, is approximately 135 m.p.h. The covering in of passenger's open cockpit by a streamlined cover has a further effect of from 1 to 2 m.p.h.



A typical scene at any air carnival held in England, showing the crowds that gather at such events.



The author winning her first Trans-Africa race, held at Johannesburg.

# Plywood in Aircraft Construction

By JAMES R. FITZPATRICK

Vice President, Huskelle Manufacturing Corp.

FROM the very beginning of man's efforts to fly, wood has played a major part in the construction of successful flying machines. Both light weight and exceptional strength are required for airplanes, so it was natural that the early leaders turned to wood and, as the design improved and more complex problems arose they turned to plywood for many structural purposes.

Plywood in first use was not waterproof and consequently was not suitable for service in all kinds of weather. During the World War, however, the Government found and successfully tested a really waterproof plywood, which had been developed for use in canoes. The glue of this plywood was attached to each other with a blood albumen glue, which produces an all-weatherproof material, capable of being formed into various curvatures without injury to the glue or the product. Huge quantities of it were used by the Government in airplane construction. Every test possible was applied to the finished plywood to insure that only the best reached the finished plane, thereby increasing the factor of safety.

## Plywood's Post-War Development

The Huskelle Manufacturing Corp., at Chicago, Ill., played an important part in supplying the government demands and today its factories make plywood and Plywood which are known and tested in many industries. Plywood is a wood or metal-faced plywood developed after the war in response to a demand for a plywood which had exceptional resistance to rot. A method was worked out for giving this metal face to the weatherproof plywood and the resulting combination was termed "Plywood."

At the main plant in Grand Rapids, great quantities of high grade veneer, from which the plywood is to be made, are stored in large warehouses. When veneer is cut from a stacked log, it is necessary that it be thoroughly dried before it is used. On receipt of a shipment of veneer to a Huskelle plant, the first thing done is to dry it in great large revolving hot plate radiators, and only reducing the

moisture content, but leaving the pieces of veneer substantially flat. Since the veneer is received contains numerous defects due to careless cutting or defects in the log, it is necessary that these imperfections be cut out. This is done at the Huskelle plant by large clipper which runs each piece to a width free of defects and to one of a



A section of the Grand Rapids, Mich., plant of the Huskelle Manufacturing Corp.

number of standard lengths. The pieces thus dried and clipped are passed to the stack room, where veneers of the same kind of wood, same thickness, and same length are kept together.

Very large storage is necessary for the veneer in order that an ample supply of dried veneer of the proper kind, size, etc., be on hand at all times. Not only are many different kinds of wood veneer stored, but each kind must be available in a large number of sizes, widths, thicknesses, and lengths.

When an order is received to make a set of panels



Post-war view of the Huskelle Manufacturing Corp. factory at Grand Rapids, Mich.

of a certain material, size, and so on, sufficient veneers are withdrawn from stock and placed upon a movable clipper. The length of these veneers withdrawn is generally correct, but their edges have to be made straight and perpendicular to the faces. This work is done by jointer machines. The various veneers are then started to make the several plies of the different panels wanted. Usually one piece has to be cut narrower to make the proper total width.

Following the sawing, the veneers for the face ply are sent to a taping machine which holds the veneers together by putting a thin paper tape on the face with the edges banded together. In this way each panel is assembled to the desired full size. Great pains are taken at the Huskelle plant to eliminate any small stresses which might be set up between the plies. Care plies are then quickly dried after these pains have been coated with glue, but the glue is not set by this drying process. After this is done, fresh glue is spread on the backs of the two face plies that form a single panel, and these are placed above and below the core so that the grain of the plies runs at right angles to the grain of the core. The edges of the assembled veneers are coated with Huskelle glue, and the glue is assembled are placed in large presses, where warm heated glues are 3 x 8 ft. in size, to be sealed by pressure and heat.

In order that the very best results can be secured, all plies of the panels are very dry just before the glue is spread on them. Also, the time between the application of the glue and the pressing operation is very short so that no ply has a chance to absorb moisture. This procedure eliminates the chances of the plies shrinking and producing radial stresses which are common with air-drying systems. The sequence of the glue spread on the face plies soaks up the dried glue on the core in the glue between the plies has the right consistency for producing a highly waterproof joint. The gluing press consists of several heated bottom plates heated to 210 deg by steam circulating through the plates. Plies to be glued together are placed between two of these plates and hydraulic pressure applied. The pressure used is adjusted to the size of the panel and the pressure required per square inch of the panel's surface. During the pressing, heat cures the glue, setting the glue and producing a thoroughly unified plywood.

Following the gluing and pressing, the panels are carefully placed to cure in a completely uniform thickness. This point is the preparation is particularly important for airplane construction as they require uniform thickness in the materials they use. Usually the panels are about two inches oversize at the very second and before



stored, these edges are trimmed off. Finished panels intended for the work are stored flat in the drying room, but panels intended for curving are sent to the gluing department for final operation.

In making Huskelle plywood, it is first actually boiled in water to soften the wood. The blood albumen glue remains in place in the process, but it remains its properties and when the molding process is completed, the finished product is just as waterproof and just as well unified as the original flat panels.

In addition to carrying huge stocks of plywood and Plywood, the Huskelle Manufacturing Corporation carries on extensive research and testing of these materials. Massive as well as delicate testing machines are employed constantly in making actual tests on all sorts of woods and plywood. These tests include tests in column-load-



Stacking Huskelle Plywood at the main plant at Grand Rapids.

ing, tension strength, splitting resistance, shearing strength, cupping tendencies, twisting tests, determination of elasticity, and many others. Results of thousands of these tests have been tabulated and provided in convenient blue print form for the convenience of users.

Naturally the business of the Huskelle Manufacturing Corp. was the production of airplane plywoods and Plywood. Some of other uses have been found for these materials in the light weight, strength and waterproof qualities have proven valuable in the construction of automobile roofs, truck bodies, marine hulls, etc.



The main plant of the Huskelle Manufacturing Corp. at Grand Rapids, Mich.















## Aerovanes

A COMBINATION arrow and highway marker has been developed by the Aerovane (Whitney Corp., 252 Madison Ave., New York City). These products are now being installed by many air-minded states and cities.

The "Aerovane" is erected in clear, open spaces, right off the main automobile highway, leading to an intersection. It is up of all steel construction. The structural steel mounting pole is 30 ft. in height. Anchored to the top of this pole is a red wind-sock, 5 ft. long, which gives the aviator his ground wind direction. Seven feet below the windsock, centered on a horizontal plane, is a large arrow 12½ ft. in length and, painted on this arrow in black, against a chrome yellow background, is the name of the town the pilot is approaching. Superimposed on the tail of the large arrow is a smaller arrow pointing true north.

The 4 x 10 ft. panel immediately beneath the arrow is used for road travel information and suspended from this panel are two plates 4 x 5 ft., which can be used for advertising purposes.

An Aerovane is clearly visible at 1,000 ft. and thus an aviator, by following any main artery of ground travel, can easily pick up an Aerovane, the position of which is readily identified by the distinctive color of the windsock, ascertain his ground wind direction, name of the town he is approaching and get his compass bearing.

As "Aerovane" erected near Chicago, Ill.

## Shock Absorber Products

SHOCK ABSORBER rods is a variety of sizes and sizes is offered by the B. F. Goodrich Rubber Co., Akron, O. This shock absorber rod meets most Army Air Corps and Navy specifications and is made in 21, 24 and 26 in. sizes. Ring type rods specially adapted to split landing gear and tail wheels may also be furnished in the same diameters to meet requirements of 22, 23, 30, 35, 40 and 45 in.

Great tension and elongation are obtained in this cord by weaving a jacket of specially treated cord in rubber threads while they are stretched approximately 300 per cent. The jacket cord is treated to resist weathering and wear.

Goodrich shock absorber discs are latex put and ground from hand made tubing to obtain accurate dimensions and the best advantage of pink in the rubber. These discs can be furnished in any size and quantity. Soft, medium and hard compounds are available so the various degrees of resistance may be obtained by combining discs of different degrees of hardness. Metal spacers may be inserted between the rubber discs to establish greater compression at intervals.

The company includes tables on hand deflection tests on the three different grades of rubber discs in its general catalogue of aeronautical products which will be sent to persons interested on request.

## Lamps for Airport Lighting

A NEW line of lamps has just been offered for airport lighting by the National Lamp Works of General Electric Co., Nela Park, Cleveland, O. Five lamps especially designed for aeromarine uses are included.

The 30,000 watt (10 kw.), 115 volt, aviation field floodlight lamp has a prong type of base and should be mounted base down. It can be used in either reflector or lens type mountings. The 5,000 watt (5 kw.), 115 volt, aviation field floodlight lamp, for use in either lens or reflector mountings also is fitted with the prong base and should be mounted base down.

To produce a narrow spread of light in a vertical plane the 5,000 watt (5 kw.), 32 volt, field floodlight lamp has



New General Electric lamps. Left to right: 30 kw., 5 kw. and 5 kw. field floodlight, advertising beacon and airport beacon type.

been developed. It is designed for either lens or reflector type projector units. The prong type of base is used. The 1,500 watt, 32 volt, lamp is recommended for field floodlight or advertising beacons. For a field floodlight lamp, an application is the same as for the 3,000 watt lamp. Where a strong beam of light is required, as in advertising beacons, this lamp is very effective. The lamp is fitted with the prong base and should be mounted base down.

The 1,000 watt, 115 volt, standard runway and airport beacon lamp is designed to give a narrow, intense beam of light. It is fitted with the mogul screw base. Base down bearing is recommended for this type of lamp.

## AC Flame Arrestor

A DUAL air cleaner-flame arrester has been developed that removes all hazards due to carburetor backfires from airplane engines. This device is the result of long research work by engineers of the AC Spark Plug Co., Flint, Mich. and has been tested and approved by the National Board of Underwriters. According to the underwriters' report no flame can be made to pass through the air cleaner-flame arrester even under the most severe conditions.

The device, attached to the intake of the carburetor also prevents dust particles from reaching the engine. The dust as it comes in contact with copper ribbons in the supercharger adheres to the sides thereby and is captured there. The cleaning element should be washed in gasoline and re-oiled at regular intervals to maintain its efficiency.

The principle of the flame arresting feature is the quenching of the flame by a material which will absorb it at such a rate that the gas is cooled below the point of ignition. This material consists of flat copper ribbons folded and arranged in a container so that any flame entering from the carburetor inlet must pass through

# Where dependability was paramount . . .



The Bethlehem Alloy and Special Steel Forgings did not fail

A NUMBER of vital parts\* in the three Wright Whirlwind Engines which drove the "Question Mark" were made from forgings manufactured by Bethlehem Steel Company, from Bethlehem Alloy and Special Steels.

Imagine the terrific stresses, repeated thousands of times every minute, which these parts withstood during 150 hours of unbroken flight! Such conditions necessitate steels of the highest character.

The same facilities, the same experience in

steel-making, the same organization that produced the alloy and special steel forgings which performed their vital tasks so well in the engines of the "Question Mark" are available to serve you.

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\*Bethlehem forgings used for parts of "Question Mark" engines included forgings for Inlet and Exhaust Gates, Cam Drive Gears and Pinions, Inlet and Exhaust Valve Rocker Arms, Master Connecting Rods and Straps, Articulated Connecting Rods, Crankshaft Bolts.

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BY excellence of instruction, of course, which will bring, in years to come, a fine repute. For that there is no substitute. But what is the answer to the problem in the meantime?

Authorities at the Chicago Aeronautical Exposition estimated an increase of from 500% to 600% in the number of flying schools for 1929. The competition to secure students will be keen.

Beauty is a convincing influence upon a

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Complete information about the Mohawk "Piano" will be sent upon request. Also distributors' proposition for schools and other responsible persons or organizations.

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Berry Brothers is constantly strengthening its position in the aircraft industry. Examination of the airplanes exhibited at the Chicago show reveals the fact that Progressive Aircraft Finishes are used by practically every builder.

Any Berry Brothers' customer will tell you why.

Progressive Aircraft Finishes applied in stock for immediate shipment by Central Wall Paper & Paint Co., Indianapolis, Indiana; Johnson Aircraft & Supply Company, Dayton, Ohio; Nautilus Aircraft Supply Co., Inc., Marshall, Missouri; Paul E. Brown, Inc., Chicago; Chicago City, Chicago; Woodward, Wright & Co., New Orleans, Louisiana.

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Varnishes Enamels and Lacquers  
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TEARME YOU for answering AVIATION

# THE CHOICE

## of Those Who Know:

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There's a vital reason when one makes of plane so consistently proves the winner in race after race. In the grueling elimination of contest after contest standard Laird planes have been consistently winning.

First in 1928 Los Angeles Closed Course Event No. 4.

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For fast, practical, and dependable air transportation, Laird proves itself outstanding in reliability as well as speed. This habit of winning demonstrates Laird's extra dependability—the factor that enables you

in a Laird plane, to come through when needed.

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The Laird cabin-ship has been a major development of the commercial air travel. A constantly increasing number of firms and business executives are finding fast transportation in these safe cabin ships—enclosed and finished in de luxe comfort. We welcome the opportunity of offering free demonstrations to responsible parties.

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In a few open territories Laird's Distributor proposition offers unusual opportunity to parties with airport facilities and funds to handle the sale of Laird Commercial planes.

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### AVIATION January 15, 1929

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Over the North Pole... across the Atlantic... to the South Pole... these dependable batteries accompany Commander Byrd

**A**GAIN a Byrd Expedition chooses Exide Batteries. This time to the South Pole. Exide Batteries are on the "City of New York"... Exide Batteries on the dog-sleds... Exide Batteries on the "Floyd Bennett" as it comes over Antarctic waters.

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We wish you could go through our factories. You could see the pains with which every process in the manufacture of Kinnear doors is handled. It is the attention we give to the little details, as well as the big points, that gives our product that distinction which no other has equalled. The use in the factory are skilled workmen who feel a personal responsibility in every piece of work they turn out.

Our ambition has been to produce a door that would meet all the requirements of aviation buildings, especially the hangars. In order to accomplish this our engineers were given a free hand. They have now turned out a door that is hand operated and a motor operated door that will meet the demands made upon it.

May we have the opportunity of going into details with you and figuring your requirements?

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100 First St.  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
100 Wisconsin Bldg.

NEW ORLEANS  
100 Poydras St.  
NEW YORK  
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KINNEAR  
ROLLING DOORS

# The front end of a plane is like the hind end of a mule. . . . .

BUT the same people who will carefully stay away from a mule's back will unthinkingly rub noses with a plane. They haven't learned yet that the front end of a plane demands the same respect as the hind end of a mule.

People must be protected against their own ignorance and thoughtlessness when visiting a flying field. The easiest, most efficient way to protect visitors is to restrict them to a fenced safety zone with an Anchor Chain Link Fence.

Let us solve your fencing problem. 75 Anchor fences located in principal cities from coast to coast are ready to advise you or take over all details of erection. Write or wire the office nearest you.

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## ANCHOR CHAIN LINK Fences



A NATION-WIDE FENCING SERVICE

AVIATION  
January 15, 1959

# Look INSULATED HASKELITE



plywood for aircraft

ALTHOUGH HASKELITE and PLYMETL possess the same insulating quality as wood, specially insulated panels with cores of Balsa wood, Celotex, Micanite and similar materials are now being produced. Samples of these insulating panels were shown at the Chicago Exposition.

Builders of aircraft greeted the new insulating panels enthusiastically and are planning to

utilize their added insulation, combined with great strength, and light weight for floors and walls to meet the flying public's demand for all weather comfort and durability. 85% of plywood now used is HASKELITE.

Aircraft engineers and builders can secure blue print booklet of aircraft applications on request. It's free—but it's valuable.

#### Haskelite Manufacturing Corporation

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Have just completed the successful organization of one of America's largest and finest commercial aircraft plants.

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Will therefore be interested in hearing from a well financed concern having a quality line of ships, and also a management problem.

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Standard sizes for U. S. Dept. of Commerce Class A-B-C airports. Also individual hangars. Substantial welded roof construction provides wide unobstructed floor area—up to 100 ft. wide—provides ample storage space for aircraft and other equipment. Also available in concrete or steel frame construction.

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- The 21 - two passenger open
- The 41 - four passenger cabin
- The 71 - seven passenger cabin

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*By Louis Condit J. M. Drogov*

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# The Modern Aerodynamic Theory in Design

By IVAN H. DEGENS

*Chief Pilot & Air Design Director Cessna*

IN the last few years the Prandtl Theory has come to be recognized as a very useful principle in the hands of the airplane designer or technician. However, full use is not generally made of the aerodynamic results resulting from it. The average person is not taught to hold it old ideas. The writer feels that a fuller use and understanding of this theory will greatly clarify the thinking upon the subject of the factors that enter airplane performance.

This article is written to assist in the above understanding and it will set forth a few formulas that have resulted from the study of the subject. Part of these expressions are original and some are due to other writers. No attempt will be made to prove the truth of the general theory of Induced Drag as first suggested by Dr. Prandtl. The reader is referred to any modern text book on the subject for the general proof.

According to Dr. Prandtl the drag of an airplane wing in a perfect fluid, i. e. a fluid without viscosity, is given by

$$D = L^2 / \pi b^2 V$$

$$\text{Where } D = \text{drag}$$

$$L = \text{lift}$$

$$b = \text{span}$$

$$V = \text{speed}$$

He also states that the same formula may be applied to the multiblade if a correction factor is applied to the value of the span,  $b$ . This correction factor is greater than unity so that the value of  $b$  used in the above expression is greater than the actual span of the blade in the case of the multiblade. The value of this factor is about 1.1 for the average blade, so that

$$b = 1.1 \pi b$$

where  $b$  = actual span of blade.  
Equation (1) may be expressed in the form of coefficients as follows.

$$C_D = C_L^2 / \pi$$

$$\text{Where } C_D = \text{induced drag coefficient}$$

$$C_L = \text{lift coefficient}$$

$$R = \text{aspect ratio} = b^2 / S$$

$$S = \text{total wing area}$$

expressed in engineering units of lb per sq ft and  $\pi$  per equation (2) becomes

$$K_D = 125 K_L^2 / R$$

In figure 1 has been plotted the above expression for wing drag as found by Prandtl and the actual measured drag of the Clark Y aerofoil. It can be seen that the theoretical and the actual results disagree by a practically constant amount below the angle of maximum lift. This does not necessarily prove an error in the theory but rather that all the factors are not considered by it. In the mathematical treatment from which Dr. Prandtl derived

equation (1) it was necessary to assume a fluid without viscosity. This assumption is not strictly true in the case of the atmosphere and consequently we have the difference as shown by Fig. 1.

By using a number of models of different aspect ratios but of the same section it has been found that the difference above noted is in all cases the same. This quantity is then a function of the wing section only and is called section drag.

One of the first ones to which equation 1 was put was the correction of wind tunnel models of one aspect ratio to apply to a model of another ratio. This correction is done by means of the following equation, coming from aspect ratio  $A$  to aspect ratio  $X$ .

$$C_D = C_D + C_D^2 / \pi (A - 1/X) \quad (3)$$

$$\text{or } (K_D)_X = (K_D)_A - 125 K_D^2 (1/A - 1/X) \quad (3a)$$

Equation (3) is now the standard method used by practically everyone to transfer the wind tunnel results at one aspect ratio to any other, or to correct for tip-plate effect. The value of the aspect ratio to be used in the above expression is not the span divided by the chord but the expression

$$R = (b^2 / S) / S$$

When we consider the complete airplane we must introduce one more division of the drag, namely that due to the fuselage, landing gear, tail surfaces and structural loading. This resistance has been called very properly the parasite drag since it produces no useful work. We then have three parts to the resistance of the complete airplane.

$$1. \text{The induced drag} = L^2 / \pi b^2 V$$

$$2. \text{Wing section drag} = C_D S$$

$$3. \text{The parasite drag} = C_D S$$

The wing section drag and the parasite drag are similar and may be grouped together under parasite as a division representing the difference between the total drag and the induced drag. That is,

$$D_A = L^2 / \pi b^2 V + 1.28 S C_D \quad (4)$$

where the value of the area,  $S$ , is made up of the wing section drag as well as the structural parasite.

In Fig. 2 we have plotted the polar curve for the VE-7 airplane as determined from full flight test. This curve shows that the value of  $S$  is practically constant throughout the range of angles investigated. The dotted curve is given to show the actual deviation from the above assumption. It is true that all airplanes may not show such agreement, but the VE-7 is a fairly representative type and there are probably other airplanes that are considerably better in this respect. In all cases of full flight analysis that the writer has carried out the agreement between the two curves has been equally as good and better in a few cases.

This discussion has been given to show that the prin-

ciples given in the preceding paragraphs very closely follow the facts as shown by the full flight polar of a specimen airplane. A great number of the engineering formulas used every day show discrepancies from the actual facts as great, if not greater, than those shown in this case. Their simplicity and ease of application justify them. We believe that in this case, also, the simplicity of equation (4) and the great number of facts that may be derived from it fully justify and recommend the above assumption for general use.

If we differentiate equation (4) with respect to  $q$  and place the result equal to zero for a minimum we find

$$d(D_A)/dq = 1.28 S C_D / V^2 = 0$$

This demonstrates a very interesting and useful principle, *ie.* at the velocity of minimum drag the induced drag equals the parasite drag.

$$q(\text{min drag}) = L^2 / 2b^2 S \quad (5)$$

$$V(\text{min drag}) = (34 \sqrt{L} / \sqrt{b^2 V S}) \quad (5a)$$

Substituting in equation (4) we have the minimum drag

$$D_A(\text{min}) = 1.28 L^2 / S b \quad (6)$$

Since the value of  $V$ , the density of the air, does not occur in equation (6), the minimum drag is independent of altitude, and depends only on the weight (equivalent to  $L$ ), the parasite area and the span.

From equation (6) we may find the value of the maximum  $L/D$ . Since the angle is constant and equals  $L$ , the max.  $L/D$  is given:

$$L/D(\text{max}) = 78b / \sqrt{S} \quad (7)$$

This is a very useful expression and can best be remembered as:

The maximum  $L/D$  equals three-fourths of the required wing area divided by the square root of the parasite area in sq ft.



a very great wing weight due to excessive spans. The planes are made as clean as possible in order to keep down the necessary wing area as given by formula (11). The writer does not want in any way to give the impression that weight is not important in the case of a soaring machine, but rather that it is not of major importance. An example will be used to illustrate the point.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{let } b &= 40 \text{ ft} \\ S_{\text{min}} &= 40 \text{ sq. ft.} \\ C_{\text{min}} &= 1.00 \\ S_{\text{max}} &= 400 \text{ sq. ft.} \\ S &= 2.46 \times 40 \times 1.424 \div 1.00 = 350 \text{ sq. ft.} \\ a \text{ (min.)} &= 1.12 \div 20 \times 1.19 = 0.067 \times 253 \\ &= 2.65 \text{ ft. per sec.} \end{aligned}$$

If the weight were increased 10%  
 $a \text{ (min.)} = 2.27 \text{ ft. per sec.}$

If the span is increased 10%, the area  $S$  also increased 10% with an attendant increase in weight of say 3%, but the value of the minimum sinking speed becomes

$$a \text{ (min.)} = 1.12 \div 20.3 \times 1.19 = .0487 \times 252 = 1.9 \text{ ft. per sec.}$$

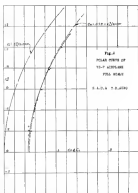
This is a decrease of 12% in minimum sinking speed. If we were to go on increasing the span and thereby the area and weight we might finally reach a point where any further increase in span would have such an effect upon the weight both due to increased area necessary and increased loading loads on the wings that no further decrease in the minimum sinking speed would result. Although no increase in  $S_{\text{min}}$  was assumed in the above comparison actually an increase of wing area would affect that quantity to some extent. This would actually affect the optimum span that could be used for any particular aircraft.

The whole question of the design of the soaring machine as far as aerodynamics is concerned is well covered by the above equations. To the mind of the writer the problem of designing a soaring plane is as simply stated as follows: Make the loadings, loading gear and air surfaces as light and as clean as possible. Choose an airfoil with sufficient depth to provide strength and one with a small center of pressure movement. The drag coefficient of the airfoil at a point somewhat less than the leading edge should be as small as possible. With the above quantities determined apply equation (11) with an estimated value of the total parasite area and a chosen value of the span. From the area resulting check the value of  $S_{\text{min}}$  assumed and determine the total weight. Find the value of the span required upon from (10). Repeat using various values for  $b$  and plot the results against  $b$ . From such a curve it not very readily be determined which is the best span to use and the minimum sinking speed corresponding.

The problem is more complicated than the simple statement above due to the fact that there is no single mathematical formula that gives the variation of wing weight with span and area. The consideration of this problem is outside the scope of this paper, but the writer intends to publish a paper at a later date that will consider this aspect of the question. At present it would be necessary to design and calculate the weights of the various wings under consideration.

In previous paragraphs we have considered the airplane as without power. It is possible to write an equation of power required for flight from equation (4) as follows:  
 $D_{\text{min}} = 0.27 L^2/V^3 + 0.0037 V^2 S_{\text{min}}$  engineering units  
 Multiplying according to  $V$  and according by 35 ft. per sec and 375 is the area we have the equation of power required:

$$P_{\text{min}} = L^2/V^3 + 0.000697 V^2 S_{\text{min}} \text{ engineering units (12a)} \\ P_{\text{min}} = 0.0116 L^2/V^3 + 0.0136 V^2 S_{\text{min}} \text{ absolute (12b)}$$



By differentiating the above expression and plotting the result equal to zero for a minimum we are able to obtain the speed that gives the least power as well as the value of the least power.

$$dP_{\text{min}}/dV = 0.0037 V^2 S_{\text{min}} - 0.0116 L^2/V^4$$

From the above equation it can be seen that at the speed of minimum power the induced drag is three times the parasite drag.

$$q \text{ (min. power)} = 386 L^2/b^2 S_{\text{min}} \text{ absolute (13)}$$

$$V \text{ (min. power)} = 10.62 \sqrt{L/V^2 S_{\text{min}}} \text{ absolute (14a)}$$

The above equations are the same as formulae (9). Therefore the speed at which we have the least power is the same as which the least sinking speed occurs.

$$P_{\text{min}} \text{ (min.)} = 0.0069 V^2 S_{\text{min}}/V^3 \text{ engineering units (14b)}$$

$$P_{\text{min}} \text{ (min.)} = 0.02 V^2 S_{\text{min}}/V^3 \text{ absolute units (14c)}$$

These formulae are very different from those generally used in showing the dependence of the power required upon the airplane characteristics. Generally, wing loading is considered the most important of these characteristics. In these formulae, however, the ratio of Weight to Span or span loading is the most important. The wing area enters into the equations in a secondary manner. It is all important for the best possible performance from a given set of conditions. Consequently the wing area is determined from the loading speed desired, with a tendency to increase that as much as possible in order to cut down the parasite. This policy is correct if a racing plane is desired, but for commercial use where weight saving and economy are desired better results may be obtained by the use of the formulae given in this paper. In general all airplanes have too small a wing area for the optimum performance. To illustrate this point we have calculated

selected Table I. The values of the quantities given were taken from last flight tests, and therefore do not contain any element of speculation. In all cases the value of  $C_{\text{min}}$  for equation (11) has been taken as unity, that is  $C_{\text{min}} = 1.00$ . In a paper to follow it will be shown that practically

TABLE I

Angle of	Actual	Calculated	Per Cent
Attack	Area	Area	Difference
2.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
5.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
7.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
10.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
12.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
15.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
17.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
20.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
22.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
25.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
27.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
30.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
32.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
35.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
37.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
40.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
42.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
45.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
47.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
50.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
52.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
55.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
57.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
60.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
62.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
65.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
67.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
70.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
72.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
75.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
77.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
80.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
82.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
85.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0
87.5°	1.00	1.00	0.0
90.0°	1.00	1.00	0.0

all good aeroplanes will give the minimum area according to formula (11) at the value of the lift coefficient.

From the above table it can be seen that an increase of wing area would have allowed the value of the minimum power according to equation (11) to have been attained with a consequent increase in lifting and minimum radius of turn, or in the case of the bombers, an increase in endurance. It is true that the maximum speed

would be diminished by an increase in parasite drag to larger wings, but the speed at altitude would not have been materially effected. In fact a little closer study in the direction of structural matters would have been much more likely to have resulted in the reduction of wing area to increase the high speed.

To summarize, we have found a rational formula for the drag curve of an airplane over the useful range, and from that have determined the minimum drag and consequently the maximum  $L/D$ , and the velocity at which they occur. From a starting point equation we have also found the value of the minimum power and the speed at which it occurs. We have shown that the wing area should be determined from the speed of minimum power rather than the landing speed desired. We have also investigated the case of the glider and soaring speed and have given the minimum sinking speed for the soarer.

There are numerous other uses to which these equations may be put by introducing an equation of Power Available. We may easily find the maximum speed, the absolute ceiling, the maximum radius of turn, the maximum rate of climb at the ground and at any altitude, the maximum range and the maximum endurance. Also we may find a very good need way to classify different aeroplanes and to choose the one best suited to a given problem. The writer plans to take up the additional problems in later papers.

## TECHNICAL REVIEWS

*Research Paper No. 35, Department of Commerce Bureau of Standards, by E. E. S. Smith.*—This paper describes a method of measuring unaccelerated beam signals for the spiral or wind gradient of aircraft. The method consists in transmitting directive and non-directive fields simultaneously with the probe plane and angle scale distances between them to secure unidirectional transmission.

Thus signals increase the efficiency of the beam from the power standpoint, reduce interference from other beams, and replace the number of rotated corners to one. It is believed that the polar characteristic of the reduced field is about the optimum for aircraft use.

*National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Technical Report No. 264, The Measurement of Airspeed Cylinder Pressure, by Chester W. Hicker.*—The work presented in this report was undertaken at the Langley Memorial Aeronautical Laboratory of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics to determine a suitable method for measuring the maximum pressure occurring in aircraft engine cylinders. The study and development of instruments for the measurement of maximum cylinder pressure has been conducted in connection with comparative and of engine cylinder configurations and aircraft-type engines. Five maximum cylinder-pressure devices have been designed, constructed, and tested, in addition to the testing of three commercial indicators.

Values of maximum cylinder pressure are given as obtained with various indicators for the same conditions and for various kinds and values of maximum cylinder pressure, produced chiefly by variation of the injection valves and angle in a high-speed oil engine. It is the high pressure of short duration, that is most difficult to measure, because the time of its duration is so short that little work can be done to operate an indicator.

The investigations conducted thus far indicate that the greatest accuracy in determining maximum cylinder pressure can be obtained with an electric balanced-pressure, diaphragm or diaphragm indicator so constructed as to

have a diaphragm or disk of relatively large area and maximum steel width and mass.

*National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Technical Report No. 264, Construction of Fine Propellers in Flight, by J. W. Cramer, Jr., and R. E. Meyers.*—This investigation was conducted at the Langley Memorial Aeronautical Laboratory of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics at Langley Field for the purpose of determining the characteristics of the full-scale propellers in flight. The experiment consisted of five propellers in flight, with a maximum diameter of 10 ft. and a weight of 2.2 lb. The propeller was of the type of the standard air propeller. Five of them differed uniformly in thickness and pitch and the fifth propeller was identical with one of the other four with the exception of a change in the surface finish. The propeller efficiencies measured in flight are found to be consistently lower than those obtained in model tests. It is probable that this is mainly a result of the higher tip speeds used in the full-scale tests. The results show also that because of differences in propeller construction it is difficult to obtain accurate comparisons of propeller characteristics. From this it is concluded that for accurate comparison it is necessary to know the propeller pitch angles under actual operating conditions.

*National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Technical Report No. 260, The Twenty-Four Propeller Research Tunnel of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, by F. E. Wright and Donald H. Wood.*—This report describes in detail the new propeller research tunnel of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics at Langley Field, Va. This tunnel has an open jet air stream velocity 10 ft. in diameter in which velocities up to 110 m.p.h. are obtained. Although the tunnel was built primarily to make possible accurate full-scale tests on aircraft propellers, it may also be used for making aerodynamic tests on full-scale fuselages, landing gears, oil surfaces, and other aircraft parts, and on model wings of large size.







Monthly and quarterly suggestions are invited.

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THE TABLE BELOW IS BELIEVED TO BE ACCURATE BUT AVIATION DOES NOT ASSUME RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE FIGURES GIVEN

**This table will appear monthly and corrections and suggestions are invited**

[illegible]

will larger than destabilizing moment  $L_z$ , due to yaw, the machine will gradually roll to the right and after one or two slight corrections will return the original attitude. That is the case of normal stability. If on the other hand, the  $L_z$  is smaller than moment  $L_y$  due to yaw, the latter will roll the machine to the left thus increasing the bank. Increased bank will cause increase of the side slip, which

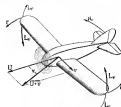


Fig. 2

will in turn increase the rate of yaw and the destabilizing moment  $L_z$ . Here we have the case of weak normal side slip generating yaw, and yaw aggravating the side slip. The machine deviates from the straight flight and travels along the spiral path, gradually tightening the turns. This is the case of spiral instability, which is characterized in actual airplanes by tendency to overbank on the turns, and is obviated by making perfect turns by using ailerons alone, while holding the rudder practically neutral.

Were the moment  $L_z$  due to dihedral very large, and the moment  $L_y$  due to yaw very small, the machine sideslipping to the left would level out too quickly. The forces due to ailerons as well as transverse velocity of roll and of side slip would carry the machine past the normal attitude, and would make it bank to the right. The bank to the right would cause the side slip to the right, and the cycle would be repeated as right bank caused forward of the straight flight we have here the action of large coefficients alternating from one side to another. This case is known under the name of *spiral oscillations*. Actually the nature of flight varies from gentle precession out all the way up to severe oscillations increasing with each bank, depending on just how large is the dihedral and how small is the fin area. Slight further decrease of fin area or increase of the dihedral would lead to *spiral instability* when the machine, aside from yaw tends to turn around and to fly out first. Thus we see that while the moment  $L_z$ —rolling moment due to yaw—is destabilizing, and the action of it leads to spiral instability, a certain amount of it is quite necessary. It compares the moment  $L_z$ —rolling moment due to side slip, the violence of which leads to unstable oscillations if not properly suspended. As the strength of the moment  $L_z$ , for any given design depends on the strength of yawing moment  $N_y$ , we come to conclusion that there must be certain optimum value of the ratio of  $N_y$  to  $L_z$  at which the stability can be obtained.

The rolling moment due to side slip which we designate by  $L_z$  depends on the amount of the fin area above the center of gravity, on arrangement of the wings and on the dihedral. The dihedral, however, has to much more

effect on the moment  $L_z$  than all the other factors considered that we can concentrate on it all our attention and disregard the rest. Theoretical considerations show that magnitude of the moment  $L_z$  can be determined by the formula

$$L_z = K \beta^2 S n U$$

[1] where:

- $\beta$ —half apex of the wing in ft.
- $\alpha$ —the angle of dihedral, which we will measure in degrees
- $U$ —the speed of flight
- $S$ —wing area in sq. ft.
- $n$ —slope of the lift coefficient curve which depends on the aspect ratio and can be determined with sufficient accuracy by the empirical formula

$$n = \frac{0.1 R}{R + 2}$$

where  $R$ —aspect ratio determined as

$$R = \frac{b^2}{S}$$

$K$ —numerical constant the value of which is of no interest to us.

The experiments confirm the formula [1] for the angles of attack within the flying range, but show that even straight wing has certain degree of stability in roll in order to account for this in the following notes we will add  $1/2$  deg to the actual dihedral, making  $\alpha + 0.5$  instead of  $\beta$  in formula [1].

The yawing moment due to side slip, which is designated by  $N_y$ , depends mostly on the side area and shape of the fuselage and on the combined area of the vertical fin and rudder. The yawing moment due to fin and rudder can be determined by the formula

$$N_y = K_1 a_1 l_a U$$

where  $a_1$ —combined area of the fin and rudder  
 $l_a$ —distance from the center of gravity of the airplane to center of pressure on the vertical tail surface, which is located at 25 per cent of its mean chord. Actually we will measure the distance  $l$  from the center of gravity to the rudder hinge. The error that introduced is very small, and the work of measuring and computing the data is made considerably easier.

$a_1$ —slope of the lift coefficient curve for the vertical tail surface. In view of a very small aspect ratio of vertical tail surfaces ordinarily used, the  $a_1$  varies but little, and we can assume for it the average value of 0.030.

$U$ —speed of the flight.

The yawing moment due to fuselage can be determined in a similar way by the formula

$$[2] \quad N_x = 0.03 K_2 a_2 X U$$

where

$a_2$ —side area of the fuselage in sq. ft.

$X$ —distance of center of pressure on the fuselage from the center of gravity.  $X$  is positive if the center of pressure is behind the center of gravity, and negative if it is ahead of it. The center of pressure is assumed to be at 25 per cent of the fuselage length.

0.035—a constant taking place of  $a_1$  used for the fin. Now we also combine the formulae 1, 2 and 3 and write the expression for the ratio of  $N_y$  and  $L_z$  as

$$[4] \quad \frac{N_y}{L_z} = \frac{0.001 a_1 l_a (0.0115 \pm X)}{K \beta^2 S (\beta + 0.5)}$$

The coefficient  $K$  we will call brevity the coefficient of normal stability. The difference from above notes is expect that certain values of this coefficient will correspond to stability, while certain higher values will correspond to spiral instability, and certain lower values will correspond to unstable oscillations. In order to find out just what these values are, we will pass now to con-



side. It is the writer's belief, that it is not safe, however, to go to the limit of variation shown by the airplanes listed in the table as supposedly normal. To start with, it is only recently that we began to understand correctly the meaning of lateral stability. The lack of definite standard of comparison and the dependence on personal opinion of different pilots is responsible for wider variation of characteristics of different airplanes than it is necessary.

On the other hand we should not forget that in this method we took into account only two most important characteristics, and neglected several less important ones. The variation in these neglected characteristics may widen at narrow design the range of permissible values in the coefficient of lateral stability. Thus Aeromarine AMC was satisfactory with coefficient as high as .85, while Aeromarine AM-1 showed marked spiral instability at only slightly higher value of .93. Aeromarine K3 is satisfactory at .25, while the "Columbia" developed "variable oscillations" at .35. We repeat that we can be reasonably certain only of narrow range near the best value of .62, but that we cannot deviate far from it, without risk of instability.

We wish to call the reader's attention to the fact that value of coefficient of lateral stability indicates the limit of stability or instability and not the degree of it. If the coefficient is low, the airplane tends to oscillate badly about the straight line of flight, especially crossing it, and it can be controlled best by the rudder. If the coefficient is high, the airplane tends to deviate from straight path for good and to assume spiral flight. It can be controlled best by ailerons. When the coefficients do not deviate far enough from the normal value to cause spiral instability, they indicate the nature of controls on normal, favoring the use of rudder in one case and ailerons in another.

If the coefficient has normal value of .62, the airplane is stable in the sense that it has no tendency to deviate from the straight course on its own account and that use of ailerons and rudder is well balanced. Whether the airplane will return to normal flight after some disturbance or not depends on the actual amount of dihedral at its surface, which controls the degree of stability.

The airplane with no dihedral, and accordingly small fin area, may be proportioned to have the coefficient of .62 if it will have then no tendency to deviate from the normal flight, and in this weather it can be flown with hands off. We mean it has no tendency to oscillate, neither has it any preference to correct bank. If it is disturbed by a gust of wind, or by a jerk of controls it will slip or slide sideways without any tendency to right itself. We say that this airplane is neutral as regards to stability.

The normal airplane must have far amount of the fin surface, and the dihedral proportioned so as to give the normal value of the coefficient of .62. Then not only it will not deviate from straight flight on its own account, but will return to it after each disturbance. On turn it will have definite preference to correct bank, and will assume it naturally, even if rudder and aileron movements are not properly coordinated by the pilot. It can be controlled by either ailerons or rudder, or by any combination of both. With requiring very fine coordination of these two controls, it will be fly.

So, the ratio of stability is now to stability in roll, which we termed the coefficient of lateral stability, and has certain fixed value, if instability is to be avoided. We suggest the fixed value at .60. The degree of stability is determined by external means of stability in yaw or stability in roll. The designer can have been very wide choice of their amount. As long as the rudding is stable and ailerons and rudder have thereby their natural

efforts, the degree of stability is of secondary importance. There is one condition, however, which leads us to choice of rather high degree of stability. This is the condition of controllability at the angles where stalling and freedom from moment spins.

When the airplane is stalled and cranks the angle at which autorotation is possible, the drag of one wing is accompanied by large increase of drag of the wing. This drag is further increased by lowering the aileron, when the pilot attempts to climb the roll. Greatly increased drag of the dropping wing pulls the airplane to the same side, and the yaw generates additional rolling moment accelerating the autorotation. These events follow one another in rapid succession and the steady balanced spin develops. Theory and practice agree in that moment spins can be prevented, and the pilot can retain the control of the machine, if the rudder is powerful enough to overcome the yawing tendency of the wing. It has been shown that this condition is fulfilled, if

$$\frac{S}{b} \geq 0.05$$

where  $S$ —area of the fin and rudder in sq. ft.  
 $b$ —span of wings  
 $L$ —distance from center of gravity to the center of pressure on fin and rudder, or approximately to the rudder hinge

This expression calls for somewhat larger fin and rudder area than is found on most of the present day airplanes.

We suggest to the designer, therefore, to choose the area of his vertical tail surface from the consideration of controllability at low speed and at the angles above stalling, using formula (5). Over the area of the vertical tail surface is decided upon, the amount of dihedral needed for stability can be easily determined from the formula (4). Let us assume for example that we are laying out the design of an airplane and have decided already on the wing area of 300 sq. ft., on the span of 32 ft. and on the length at tail from center of gravity to the rudder hinge of 15 ft. Let us assume, moreover, that side area of the fuselage is equal to 60 sq. ft., and that most of the fuselage project 7 ft. ahead of C.G., making total length of fuselage, including propeller support, 32 ft. The center of pressure on the side of fuselage we will assume to be at 25 per cent. of its length,  $x = 8.5$  ft. from the bow or 7.5 ft. ahead of center of gravity. From the expression (5) we have:

$$\frac{S}{300} \geq 0.05$$

$$S \geq 15$$

hence  $S = 15$  sq. ft.

$$\frac{S}{b} = \frac{15}{32} = 0.47$$

Aspect ratio  $R = \frac{32}{15} = 2.13$

$$\frac{R}{b} = \frac{2.13}{32} = 0.066$$

From expression (4), substituting  $R = 2.13$  instead of  $R$  and  $X = 60$  as explained above, we have:

$$60 = \frac{0.032 \times 32 \times 15}{0.015 \times 16 \times 1.5} = 95,000$$

$$60 = \frac{0.066 \times 300 \times 16 \times (P + Q)}{1}$$

$$180,000 = 2,200P + 13,000Q = 9,075 + 44,000P$$

$$P = 2.7 \text{ deg.}$$

Thus we find that our airplane should have the nose dihedral of 2.7 deg. and the vertical tail area of 35 sq. ft. This satisfies our condition of stability in roll. We suggest the fixed value at .60. The degree of stability is determined by external means of stability in yaw or stability in roll. The designer can have been very wide choice of their amount. As long as the rudding is stable and ailerons and rudder have thereby their natural



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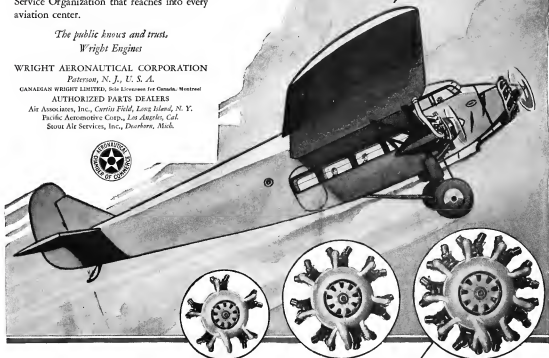
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